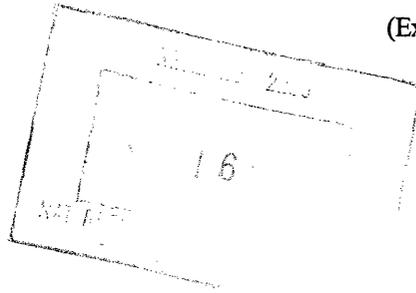


**United States Department of the Interior
National Park Service**

**National Register of Historic Places
Multiple Property Documentation Form**



This form is used for documenting multiple property groups relating to one or several historic contexts. See instructions in *How to Complete the Multiple Property Documentation Form* (National Register Bulletin 16B). Complete each item by entering the requested information. For additional space, use continuation sheets (Form 10-900-a). Use a typewriter, word processor, or computer to complete all items.

New Submission Amended Submission

A. Name of Multiple Property Listing

Prehistoric Sites of Stranger Creek Basin, Kansas

B. Associated Historic Contexts

(Name each associated historic context, identifying theme, geographical area, and chronological period for each.)

Prehistoric Archaeological Sites
Stranger Creek Basin, Northeastern Kansas
Paleoindian, Archaic, Woodland, Late Prehistoric, Protohistoric

C. Form Prepared by

name/title Brad Logan/Research Associate Professor date December 20, 2003
organization Dept. of Sociology, Anthropology & Social Work Kansas State Univ.
street & number 204 Waters Hall telephone (785) 532-2419
city or town Manhattan state KS zip code 66506

D. Certification

As the designated authority under the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966, as amended, I hereby certify that this documentation form meets the National Register documentation standards and sets forth requirements for the listing of related properties consistent with the National Register criteria. This submission meets the procedural and professional requirements set forth in 36 CFR Part 60 and the Secretary of the Interior's Standards and Guidelines for Archeology and Historic Preservation. (See continuation sheet for additional comments.)

Richard D. Pankratz DSHPO 9-14-04
Signature and title of certifying official Date

Kansas
State or Federal Agency or Tribal government

I hereby certify that this multiple property documentation form has been approved by the National Register as a basis for evaluating related properties for listing in the National Register.

Jenika K. Martin Seibert 10/29/04
Signature of the Keeper Date of Action

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Table of Contents for Written Narrative

Provide the following information on continuation sheets. Cite the letter and the title before each section of the narrative. Assign page numbers according to the instructions for continuation sheets in *How to Complete the Multiple Property Documentation Form* (National Register Bulletin 16B). Fill in page numbers for each section in the space below.

	Page Numbers
E. Statement of Historic Contexts (If more than one historic context is documented, present them in sequential order.)	1-16
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Paperwork Reduction Act Statement: This information is being collected for applications to the National Register of Historic Places to nominate properties for listing or determine eligibility for listing, to list properties, and to amend existing listings. Response to this request is required to obtain a benefit in accordance with the National Historic Preservation Act, as amended (16 U.S.C. 470 et seq.).

Estimated Burden Statement: Public reporting burden for this form is estimated to average 120 hours per response including the time for reviewing instructions, gathering and maintaining data, and completing and reviewing the form. Direct comments regarding this burden estimate or any aspect of this form to the Chief, Administrative Services Division, National Park Service, P.O. Box 37127, Washington, DC 20013-7127; and the Office of Management and Budget, Paperwork Reductions Project (1024-0018), Washington, DC 20503.

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Prehistoric Sites of Stranger Creek Basin, Kansas

STATEMENT OF HISTORIC CONTEXTS

Stranger Creek is the last major tributary of the [REDACTED] before the latter's confluence with the [REDACTED] to the east. It drains an area of 1,380 km² (533 mi²) in [REDACTED] northeastern Kansas. It offers archaeologists a unique environment in which to explore cultural adaptations on the western edge of the Prairie Peninsula (Transeau 1935), an area of intermixed tallgrass prairie and deciduous woodland that formed soon after the end of the Pleistocene. Those vegetational communities form an ecotone. Indeed, the Prairie Peninsula is considered to be one of the most "conspicuous and important" examples of the ecotone concept (King and Graham 1981:131). Such areas are sensitive to prolonged climatic regimes characterized by decreased or increased precipitation that affect the relative proportions of grassland and woodland (Shelford 1963; Küchler 1974). Periods of prolonged aridity increase grasslands and correspondingly diminish woodland; periods of increased precipitation have an opposite effect. These changes likely affected indigenous human populations who had adapted to the plant communities and their animal species and may explain some aspects of the different archaeological cultures in them.

Stranger Creek is also on the western edge of some archaeological culture areas. For example, there are very few sites of the Kansas City Hopewell variant of the Woodland period and none of the Steed-Kisker phase of the Late Prehistoric period west of Stranger Creek. Those cultures are regional manifestations of archaeological traditions (Middle Woodland and Middle Mississippian) that occurred throughout much of what is now the Midwestern United States. Thus, sites of those cultures in Stranger Creek basin offer archaeologists the opportunity to address questions about the nature of lifeways on a cultural frontier, including such topics as migration, exchange, subsistence-settlement practices, technologies, and ideology.

Stranger Creek is the only major tributary [REDACTED] that has not been inundated by dam construction. Consequently, its lower reach is the only large valley along that greater watershed in which archaeologists can find and preserve evidence of prehistoric occupations of low terrace and floodplain settings. Elsewhere, such as along the lower Delaware and Wakarusa Rivers, such settings are inaccessible, having been inundated by the Perry and Clinton Lakes respectively.

For these reasons, discussed in more detail in the following sections, significant prehistoric sites in Stranger Creek basin deserve placement on the National Register of Historic Places as part of this Multiple Property Nomination.

BACKGROUND

Archaeologists have documented at least 12,000 years of human occupation in northeastern Kansas, through the Paleoindian, Archaic, Woodland, Late Prehistoric, Protohistoric, and Historic periods (Brown and Simmons 1987; Logan 1996; O'Brien 1984; Wedel 1959). More than 160 recorded sites in Stranger Creek basin span most of that time. That watershed has been the subject of surveys and excavations over that past 40 years, primarily by archaeologists from the University of Kansas Museum of Anthropology (KUMA) and the Kansas State Historical Society (KSHS). In particular, it was the focus of the Stranger Creek Archaeological Project (SCAP), a research program undertaken by KUMA with support from a series of survey and planning grants-in-aid from the National Park Service that were awarded by the KSHS. The preparer of this multiple property nomination form directed SCAP from 1979 to 1985. The results of that project are detailed in two project reports (Logan 1981, 1983), a doctoral dissertation (Logan 1985), and publications (Logan 1988a, 1988b) that focus on the cultural history of the watershed and its environmental context. Combined with data from more recently investigated sites (Logan 2001, 2002, 2003a, 2003b), they provide more detailed background to the human prehistory and environment of Stranger Creek that is summarized here.

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Environment: Adaptations to the Prairie-Woodland Edge

Stranger Creek is a north-bank tributary of the [REDACTED]. It drains southward from headwaters [REDACTED] an orientation that reflects its formation as glacial runoff from the northward retreat of ice during the early Pleistocene (the Kansan stage in the classic four-stage scheme). This orientation precludes the greater variation in precipitation and vegetation patterns that characterize major watersheds in Kansas (e.g., the Republican and Kansas Rivers) that are oriented west to east and that consequently are subject to the pattern of westward-decreasing rainfall and corresponding change in dominance from woodland to prairie communities. This relative homogeneity at any given time in Stranger Creek basin makes it an ideal laboratory for tracking changes in cultural adaptations throughout the watershed. For example, the effects of the Altithermal climatic episode, a regime of maximum post-Pleistocene aridity, can be documented at Middle Archaic sites anywhere in the basin with the expectation that variations from site to site reflect more subtle, intrinsic differences in environmental change than would be anticipated across a broader east-west geographical area. Thus, a concentration of Middle Archaic occupations along the lower reach of Stranger Creek and contrasting scarcity of them higher in the drainage might be explained as the reflection of hunter-gatherers who focused on more reliable water sources in the former area. Similarly, comparison of Middle Archaic sites in Stranger Creek basin to those along streams to the east and west, that is along a gradient affected by broader extrinsic (precipitation-sensitive) factors, can inform us about adaptive variations on a greater geographic scale.

Studies of chipped stone tools, the most common artifacts at prehistoric sites in the basin, can also provide insight to the adaptations of stone-age peoples to both the environment of Stranger Creek and to groups in neighboring areas. Only three types of chert, the most frequently utilized raw material, occur in the watershed. One of these, an unnamed type, is limited to Tertiary-age deposits in uplands and examples of them are very rare in prehistoric site assemblages. The other two, far more common in site assemblages, are associated with the Plattsmouth and Toronto limestone members of the Oread Limestone formation that outcrop in different areas along the drainage (McCauley 1998; Logan 1985:40-47). Plattsmouth chert, a gray, fossiliferous material, is more ubiquitous and easily found along all tributaries of Stranger Creek. Toronto chert, a buff-colored, fine-grained and fossil-free material, is more restricted but it appears to have been favored over Plattsmouth by prehistoric flintknappers because its homogenous nature made it more easily worked into tools. Notably, neither of these cherts occurs naturally along the principal stream, the lower reach of which exposes outcrops of chert-free sandstones and shales. Studies of the lithic assemblages from prehistoric sites throughout the basin with regard to the relative proportions of these cherts may indicate that their differential distribution was a factor in settlement decision-making through time (Logan 1988a). Similarly, analysis of lithic assemblages with regard to exotic cherts, such as those from Permian outcrops in the Flint Hills to the west of the study area, may shed light on relations between groups in the basin and those in neighboring regions, or on the mobility of hunter-gatherers and the application of an embedded lithic-procurement strategy (Binford 1979; cf. McLean 1998).

Geoarchaeological studies in the Great Plains in general (Mandel 2000), and the central Plains in particular (Johnson and Logan 1990; Mandel 1995), have become increasingly important in interpreting site distribution patterns, burial, and exposure. Prehistoric sites in Stranger Creek basin may be especially significant in this regard. Previous research has demonstrated how their distribution vis-a-vis various landform and geomorphic contexts may be due to preferences for flood-free land, or be a consequence of floodplain aggradation and terrace erosion (Logan 1983, 1985, 1988a). Variations in the association of sites with different kinds of upland and lowland terrain (e.g., bluff tops, terraces, floodplains, etc.) can be interpreted as reflections of past settlement patterns. Their presence in buried or exposed contexts can be interpreted as a consequence of landscape evolution. For example, the apparent clustering of late Holocene-age sites on terraces along tributaries of Stranger Creek and the fewer examples of such along the principal stream, where lateral planation has removed most terraces (Dufford 1958), suggests groups during that time preferred to occupy higher.

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less flood-prone land. Conversely, the presence of sites of that age buried below the floodplain of the principal stream suggests that the aforementioned site distribution pattern may be less a reflection of past settlement patterns than of fluvial processes that affected site visibility differently. Finally, it is possible that both factors explain the distribution of prehistoric sites (they are not mutually exclusive), in which case archaeologists will want to determine which may have been primary (Logan 1985, 1988a).

Culture History: Adaptations on the Frontier

Various archaeological cultures have been defined for the central Plains and several of these either are or may be represented at sites in Stranger Creek basin, the geographical location of which is significant because it is on the "edge" of some of them. It is apparent from the many sites that have been recorded to date in the drainage that it was on the frontier of cultural traditions or phases whose cores were located to its east (Hopewell, Mississippian), west (Munkers Creek), north (Nebraska) or south (Pomona). For that reason, sites of most of these cultures may be significant for the insight they can provide to environmental adaptations and cultural relations in "marginal" areas. Relevant cultures are described below with respect to their associated time periods.

Paleoindian

No Paleoindian sites have been recorded in Stranger Creek valley. This is likely due to their removal from lowland settings by lateral migration of the principal stream. Geomorphological research along the [REDACTED] River has indicated that fill below [REDACTED] T1 terrace along tributaries of Stranger Creek, may contain deposits of late Pleistocene age (Holien 1982; Johnson and Logan 1990; Johnson and Park 1996). Thus, Paleoindian sites may be buried below this landform along such streams [REDACTED] in the watershed. However, none has been recorded at this time. There is a higher probability that evidence of Paleoindian activities will be found in upland settings, where landforms have been more subject to net erosion rather than deposition or where the latter has resulted in only shallow burial (e.g., the DB site; Logan 1998a), and in channel deposits along tributaries. Support for this potential comes from numerous finds of diagnostic Paleoindian artifacts in areas adjacent to Stranger Creek basin. These include [REDACTED] points from upland ridges along the Missouri River in Leavenworth County (Logan and Johnson 1997; Logan et al. 1998; Witty and Marshall 1968), and [REDACTED] (e.g., Scottsbluff, Eden, Plainview, etc.) projectile points on gravel bars [REDACTED] downstream from Stranger Creek (Brown and Logan 1987; Hofman 1996; Rogers and Martin 1982, 1983; Wetherill 1995).

Early-Middle Archaic

The beginning of the Archaic period coincides with the beginning of the Holocene epoch. The global environmental shifts that occurred at the end of the Pleistocene, including abrupt vegetational changes and megafaunal extinctions, required adaptive responses by human populations. In the eastern Great Plains, this response entailed the adoption of a foraging lifeway by small, dispersed groups of hunter-gatherers dependent on modern wild plant and animal resources. These groups responded to seasonal availability of these resources in their various habitats across the landscape by shifting occupations among strategically located campsites. While not as highly mobile as the Paleoindian settlement-subsistence pattern, the Archaic pattern in the region Plains was not sedentary. This is indicated by the lack of storage facilities, distinctive habitation structures, and a developed ceramic technology. With the demise of late Pleistocene megafauna some 10,000 years ago, the hunters of the Great Plains targeted modern game such as deer, elk, and bison

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and a greater dependence on wild plant foods. Cleland (1976) has described the Paleoindian to Archaic subsistence shift as a change from a focal economy to one more accurately described as diffuse. Archaic settlement sites indicate a shift toward seasonal exploitation of resources in local microenvironments and, in the lower Missouri and Kansas River region at least by the Late Archaic, the establishment of an annual round focused on forest-riverine and upland prairie resources.

Post-Pleistocene readaptation was strongly influenced by the Altithermal climatic episode, a time of increasing aridity in the Central Plains ca. 9,000-5,000 BP. In northeastern Kansas, this episode brought about an expansion of prairie and a corresponding recession of the upland and/or riverine woodlands (Grüger 1973). Perhaps as a response to this environmental change, Archaic hunter-gatherers adopted an economic strategy based on the use of a wide variety of plant and animal resources available in aquatic, floodplain forest, and floodplain prairie communities (Schmits 1978).

The earliest radiocarbon dated Archaic occupations in northeastern Kansas, at Sutter (14JN309; Katz 1971, 1973) in Jackson County and the earliest of two components at Cut-Bank (14JF409; Logan 1990c:257-262) in Jefferson County, occurred ca. 8800-7400 BP, prior to or early in the Altithermal. Neither component has been assigned to specific cultural complexes, though the former bears affinities to the Frederick and McKean complexes of the northwestern Great Plains. At both sites, skeletal remains of bison suggest that animal was the primary target of these Archaic hunter-gatherers. The presence of artifacts of non-local cherts at the Cut-Bank site points to the procurement of this material at locales in the Flint Hills and High Plains of Kansas and suggests groups at this time were still fairly mobile.

The Altithermal was the climax of a warming trend, and concomitant expansion of prairie habitat, that was initiated soon after the retreat of the Wisconsin ice sheet. The beginning of this trend can be seen in the Dalton culture. Archaic adaptations may have developed gradually over a long period from the beginning of the Holocene without markedly severe change at the Altithermal "boundary" of 9,000 BP. An apparent occupational hiatus of some 1500 years (ca. 7500-6000 BP) in the archaeological record throughout much of the Great Plains is coincident with the peak of this episode. This hiatus has been attributed to the prevalent arid conditions but is as likely due to fluvial geomorphic processes affecting site visibility either through burial or erosion (Mandel 1987:IV-12). Indeed, deeply buried Archaic occupations at sites such as Cherokee, in western Iowa, point to continued, if more geographically restricted, activities in the region (Anderson et al. 1980:265-266).

Whatever the affects of the Altithermal on Archaic lifeways, the well-documented occurrence of that climatic episode has colored much of the research about coincident human adaptations and their relationship to environmental factors. It has given many interpretations of that period a deterministic cast, all too easily assumed given the paucity of information about regional and inter-regional cultural relations (other than circumstantial evidence provided by the wide geographic range of similar projectile point styles). Moreover, the effect of the Altithermal on alluvial sedimentation and erosion in lowland settings bears directly on the problem of Archaic site preservation or removal.

Taxonomic units for the Early and Middle Archaic period relevant to the region that includes the Evans site are Logan Creek (ca. 7500-6000 BP), Blue Springs (6700-6450 BP), Jacomo (5700-5200 BP), Black Vermillion (5270-5055 BP), and Munkers Creek (6000-4950 BP). Blue Springs and Jacomo are known from only a few sites in the Little Blue River drainage, Jackson County, Missouri (Schmits and Bailey 1989:230-231). The Logan Creek complex is very poorly known in Kansas (Brown and Simmons 1987) and, indeed, is not yet well defined from the few excavated sites that have been assigned to it.

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Logan Creek: The Logan Creek complex is based on data from a few sites in valleys tributary to the Missouri River in eastern Nebraska and western Iowa. Despite the number of sites assigned to it, it remains poorly described. In particular, data from the type-site, Logan Creek [REDACTED] remain unpublished. One of the most recent discussions of the complex in Kansas (Thies and Witty 1992) is only a summary of the data given in the short manuscript by Kivett (1959), who defined the complex. Kay (1998:174-177) and Logan and Ritterbush (2001) augment their more recent overviews with data from Cherokee, Rustad, Turin and Lewis Central School, other sites assigned to Logan Creek.

The type-site is in Burt County, northeastern Nebraska. Excavations there in the 1950s and 1960s by the Nebraska State Historical Society revealed eight cultural zones in stratigraphic sequence within an alluvial fan (Kivett 1959; Mandel 1995). Kivett (1959) defined the Logan Creek complex on the basis of material from the four lower zones (A-D), which contained hearths, shallow circular pits, and post molds. Bison bone was particularly common, suggesting this animal was the primary game animal. Chipped stone tools included small to medium size, side-notched points with triangular blades and concave or straight bases; plano-convex, side-notched scrapers; crudely flaked lanceolate blades; grinding stones and metates; grooved scoria abraders; and bone tools such as ribs with spatula-like, serrated ends, awls, tubular bone beads, and a fishhook; ferrous oxide; and an "abundance of pink quartzite from glacial till commonly used for hearths, usually in a broken and cracked condition" (Kivett 1959:4).

The Logan Creek site was compared to the Simonsen (13CK61), Hill (13ML62), and Turin sites (13MN2) in western Iowa, all of which were assigned to the complex (Kivett 1959). All three yielded side-notched dart points with straight to concave bases. Only one such point was found at Turin, in the pelvic region of a fully flexed, ochre-stained burial that also contained *Anculosa* shell beads (Fisher et al. 1985). Hill and Simonsen provided more evidence of the importance of bison hunting. The remains of more than 25 bison from the latter, in alluvial terrace fill along the Little Sioux River, were identified as *Bison occidentalis* (Frankforter and Agogino 1960; Agogino and Frankforter 1960). Indeed, Simonsen was initially described as a Paleoindian bison kill. However, given the mid-Holocene age of the site and of the Logan Creek complex in general, that affiliation and the bison taxonomic identification are no longer tenable. Indeed, the latter concern may not even be relevant. Bison taxonomy remains problematic and the trend has been toward synonymy, lumping all late Pleistocene and Holocene bison in the same species and reserving use of terms such as "*antiquus*" and "*occidentalis*" for subspecies (Wilson 1974). Contemporary bison from the Cherokee Sewer site, discussed below, are assigned to *Bison bison*, subspecies indeterminate (Pyle 1980:179-181).

More recently investigated sites assigned to the complex include Cherokee Sewer in western Iowa and Spring Creek in southwestern Nebraska. The former site is well described and includes at least two components in the stratified deposits of an alluvial fan (Anderson and Semken 1980). Bison remains are plentiful here as well and they are associated with the side-notched points considered diagnostic of the Logan Creek complex. Cultural Horizon I at the site, which yielded five side-notched points, was assigned to the Middle Archaic period. Cultural Horizon II, which contained 22 points of which ten were side-notched, was assigned to the Early Archaic period. Cultural Horizon III contained ten lanceolate and stemmed points and it was assigned to the Late Paleoindian period. Horizon I dates ca. 6000-6300 BP; Horizon II to 7500 BP these levels range from ca. 6000 to 7500 BP; Horizon III dates ca. 8500 BP. All three components are interpreted as late winter bison processing camps.

Anderson and others (1980) provide a list of "firsts" evident at Cherokee Sewer. Among them is the first appearance of the side-notched dart point in Iowa. Horizon IIIa yielded one such artifact among more prevalent stemmed and lanceolate forms. The first milling stones appear in Horizon II at 7200 BP. That groundstone technology

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had occurred earlier is noted by the earliest full-grooved axe in Zone 7 at the Simonsen site, dated ca. 8430 BP. The clinker abrader appears at Cherokee in Horizon II. Here the authors note "such items were obtainable only through trade or travel to the Missouri River basin where they could be found in alluvial deposits downstream from the burning lignite beds in the Dakotas" (Anderson et al. 1980:266). Finally, the first evidence of domestication of the dog on the eastern border of the Great Plains is found in Horizon I (Middle Archaic).

The Spring Creek site [REDACTED], located on the second terrace at the [REDACTED] in Frontier County, Nebraska, was excavated by the Nebraska State Historical Society in 1961-1962 (Grange 1980:12-47). This investigation recovered 276 stone and bone artifacts, most of chipped stone. They include 21 projectile points, most of which are side-notched forms but they include a few lanceolates. Other chipped stone tools include knives, scrapers and choppers. None of the scrapers is described as notched, though three are bifacially worked. The majority are generic end scrapers. The groundstone assemblage includes a grinding slab to which "fragments of red pigment adhere" (Grange 1980:38) and four manos. Worked bone consists of bison ulna picks, a scapula pick, bison long bone fleshers, a shaft wrench (bison rib), bone abrader, awls, rib and split rib flakers, and a spatula made from a bison scapula. While the faunal remains include deer, fox, antelope, beaver, cottontail, pintail, goose and other remains that are probably intrusive, the great majority are bison. Only one radiocarbon date was obtained from the site that indicates its occupation ca. 5680±160 BP. The site is interpreted as a general purpose base camp with hearths, piles of waste bone and one possible storage pit. Grange (1980:47) suggests the site was occupied "early in the Altithermal period of climatic change" and that the Logan Creek and Simonsen sites were occupied prior to that change. However, this interpretation is not consistent with current dates of the Altithermal (Altithermal) episode for the Central Plains of ca. 9000-5000 BP, which would embrace all three sites, with Spring Creek occurring nearer its end. Grange (1980:47) also suggests that the more recent date of the site vis-a-vis Simonsen and Modoc Shelter may reflect westward movements of Plains Archaic populations.

Logan Creek-like projectile points have also been found elsewhere in northeastern Kansas. Examples were found at the DB site, on an upland ridge overlooking the Missouri River at Fort Leavenworth, Kansas (Hatfield 1998). These were not found in a radiocarbon-dated context and, indeed, bioturbation of the cultural deposits that contained them resulted in their association with corner-notched projectile point-knives (PPKs) that probably belong to subsequent Late Archaic occupations (Logan 1998a). Logan Creek-like PPKs have also been found in surface contexts at sites in Independence Creek watershed, which shares an interfluvium with Stranger Creek in Atchison County, Kansas (Logan 2003c).

Black Vermillion: The Black Vermillion phase is represented at the Coffey site [REDACTED] which yielded evidence of the practice of a diffuse economy (*sensu* Cleland 1976) in the Big Blue River basin north of Manhattan, Kansas. This site was occupied during the late Altithermal, a time of initial woodland re-expansion about 5055 to 5270 BP (Schmits 1978:85). At the time of its occupation, the site was near the margin of an oxbow lake. Faunal and floral remains reflect the occupants' utilization of varied resources from upland prairie and lowland woodland-aquatic habitats. Artifacts recovered include lanceolate bifaces, basal-notched and corner-notched projectile points, gouges, axes, groundstone manos, and metates. Several artifacts from the lower component at the aforementioned DB site compare well with the groundstone and chipped-stone assemblages from the Coffey site (Beck 1998). These include manos and metate fragments, an expanding base drill, and a basal-notched point. The lanceolate bifaces from the Coffey site, including a medial fragment similar to one from the DB site, are thick with a biconvex cross-section comparable to Nebo Hill points. Interestingly, the only contrast between this phase and the Munkers Creek phase is slight differences in projectile point morphology. This exemplifies the taxonomic splitting that should be avoided.

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Munkers Creek: Witty (1982:218-219) assigns the cultural zones in Horizon III at the Coffey site to the Munkers Creek phase. This complex, as defined by Witty (1982), is recognized at sites containing habitation features such as hearths, shallow pits and postholes in association with such diagnostic artifacts as Munkers Creek dart points; Munkers Creek knives (elongate, asymmetrical bifaces with occasional evidence of "sickle polish"); gouges and chipped stone axes. Although the Munkers Creek phase is distinct from the Nebo Hill complex in its lack of any ceramic pottery technology, the earliest examples of the use of fired clay as an artistic medium date to the Munkers Creek phase. These examples consist of small human effigies recovered at the William Young site, type site of the phase, in the Council Grove Lake area (Witty 1982:124-126). Sites of the phase generally occur in floodplain settings along major streams in the Flint Hills and western Osage Cuestas of eastern Kansas. Tools and food remains indicate a generalized hunting and gathering economy characteristic of other Plains Archaic adaptations.

Based on radiocarbon dates from the Coffey and William Young sites, the temporal span of the Munkers Creek phase was suggested to be from 5450-4950 BP (3500-3000 BC; Witty 1982:219). The younger of two Archaic components at the Cut-Bank site in the Delaware River Valley has yielded diagnostic artifacts of the Munkers Creek phase, including one knife of Permian chert, and a radiocarbon date of 5710±100 BP (Logan 1990c; Reichart 1988; cf. Reichart 1984). This site suggests the phase was geographically more extensive, including northeastern Kansas, and temporally longer-lived. Additional support for a longer temporal span is provided by a date of 5850±135 BP from Horizon III-8 at the Coffey site (Schmits 1978:85).

Blue Springs: The Blue Springs phase was defined, probably prematurely, by Schmits and Bailey (1989) on the basis of limited data from three sites, [REDACTED], Coffin [REDACTED] and [REDACTED], in the Little Blue River Valley, Jackson County, Missouri. Most of the information was obtained during excavation [REDACTED] in 1983-1984 by Environmental Systems Analysis (ESA) (Schmits et al. 1989). The geographic range of the phase is limited to the Little Blue River and its temporal range is defined by only two dates [REDACTED] (6580±120 and 6660±100 BP). It is characterized by "small side-notched projectile points similar to those recovered from early Archaic sites in northeastern Nebraska ..., northeastern Iowa..., and eastern Kansas. The Blue Springs phase appears to have been part of an early Middle Archaic small side-notched point tradition that probably extended over most of the eastern Prairie Plains during the seventh centuries B.P." (Schmits and Bailey 1989:230).

Most of the data on which the taxon rests comes from [REDACTED] with some comparative data from Coffin. The Middle Archaic component at the former site was buried 3.0-3.4m below the T1 terrace along a cutbank [REDACTED]. The recovery of ten small side-notched points in conjunction with the radiocarbon dates led Schmits and others (1989) to compare the assemblage with those of the Cherokee Sewer and Logan Creek sites. Lacking, however, were hafted scrapers like those from Logan Creek, which Schmits and others (1989:107) describe as "a side-notched stemmed bifacial scraper. Some of these appear to be made from reworked scrapers, while others appear to have been initially used as scrapers". Again, there appears to be some difference in the interpretation of the scrapers from Logan Creek, that is, whether they are bifacial or unifacial (or both) and purposefully made as scrapers or recycled from another tool type. Factors that distinguish the site, and therefore the Blue Springs phase derived from it and Coffin, are the lack of notched, stemmed scrapers and the tendency toward the production of small bifaces" (Schmits et al. 1989:107). Though 30 scrapers were found [REDACTED] and therefore may represent a fair sample of scraper variability for the site's Archaic occupants, the absence of stemmed scrapers should not be inferred as evidence of their absence from their technological repertoire.

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The settlement-subsistence pattern of the Blue Spring phase is based on the lowland site, [REDACTED], the ridge top site, Coffin, and to a lesser extent, the bluff slope site, [REDACTED]. It remains to be seen just how representative are these few sites within one restricted area of the total range of settlement variability of Middle Archaic populations throughout the Lower Missouri River basin. Subsistence was based on the hunting of woodland and edge game, primarily white-tailed deer, though bison remains were also recovered [REDACTED]. Slope and lowland plant foods, especially black walnuts and hickory nuts, were used, as were to a lesser extent such starchy plants as chenopods, ammania, portulaca and purslane. Schmits and Bailey (1989:235-237) suggest the Blue Springs phase is characterized by warm season occupation of lowland and upland settings, with the extraction of resources from the latter followed by transport of goods to longer, more extensively settled bottomland camps. This pattern of extensive, warm season occupation of lowland camps differs from the Nebo Hill phase settlement pattern.

Schmits and Bailey (1989:237) admit "further data from other sites will be needed to document the full range of Blue Springs phase settlement-subsistence patterns". Given the limited number of sites and their restricted geographic location, the restriction of temporal data to two dates from one site, and the lack of control for variability with respect to its formal criteria, the Blue Springs phase taxon should only be considered hypothetical.

Jacomo: The Jacomo phase is also located, indeed presently limited to, the Little Blue River valley in Jackson County, Missouri (Schmits 1989a; Schmits and Bailey 1989). It is based on data from just two sites, one of them a mortuary [REDACTED] that contained remains of three adults and no cultural material. Thus, its association with the phase is limited to the radiocarbon date of 5420±210 BP, contemporary with Cold Clay [REDACTED], the primary type-site. Cold Clay, excavated in 1983 by ESA, has been dated ca. 5550-5590 BP. Artifacts from that site that are considered diagnostic of the phase include medium to large expanding stemmed and corner-notched projectile points, some of which compare favorably to those of the Helton phase components at Koster in the Lower Illinois River Valley (Cook 1976). Cold Clay is a lowland occupation that contained evidence of a more limited array of activities than [REDACTED]. Hearth features were not present, though diffuse charcoal and ash was found, and activity areas could not be defined, perhaps because of "post-occupational disturbance or the limited area of the site excavated" (Schmits and Bailey 1989:237). The 1983 block excavation at the site covered a 5x9m area (Schmits 1989b:12) of the component, which was at a depth of 1.8-2.7m in a terrace fill.

The lithic assemblage from the Cold Clay site consists of 12 projectile points that display considerable variability. They include four corner-notched, two straight stemmed, four expanding stemmed, one side-notched, and one lanceolate forms. Other bifacial chipped stone artifacts are two knives, one scraper, 50 blanks, and 45 fragments. Unifaces include four scrapers, seven edge-modified cores, 375 edge modified flakes, and 35 modified chunks. More than 8,000 pieces of lithic debris, including cores, flakes, chunks, chips and shatter, were also recovered. Only five groundstone artifacts were found, a metate fragment, mano-nutting stone, sandstone abraded, and two cobble fragments. Faunal remains were limited to small pieces of burned bone, a few of which were identified as deer and turtle. Plant remains were limited to 16 chenopod seeds and eight nutshell fragments. The site was interpreted as a summer and fall settlement devoted primarily to lithic tool manufacturing and pigment processing. Again, the data from the single habitation site on which the Jacomo phase is based is so limited as to render the taxon at this stage hypothetical.

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Late Archaic

The Late Archaic period corresponds to the Sub-Boreal (post-Altithermal) climatic episode (Bryson et al. 1970; Wendlan and Bryson 1974), which was more mesic than the Altithermal but with less effective moisture than the early Holocene (King 1980:11). During this episode, the oak-hickory woodland community again became established on some upland terrain in northeastern Kansas and northwestern Missouri (Grüger 1973).

Archaeological cultures relevant to the Late Archaic occupation of Stranger Creek valley include the Nebo Hill and Walnut phases. The Nebo Hill phase shows technological parallels to Late Archaic cultures of the Eastern Woodland, particularly to the Sedalia complex of eastern Missouri (Chapman 1975) and the Titterington phase of the Lower Illinois River Valley (Cook 1976). This connection appears to have been established at least by this time (Reid 1984; Johnson 1992), though some evidence of earlier contact has been inferred from Helton phase-like projectile points at the Cold Clay site (Schmits 1989b).

Nebo Hill: Sites of the Nebo Hill phase include the Nebo Hill type site [REDACTED], on a blufftop overlooking the Missouri River in Clay County, Missouri (Reid 1983, 1984); the Sohn site [REDACTED], a campsite on a terrace along the Little Blue River (Reeder 1978, 1980); the extensive upland sites of Turner-Casey [REDACTED] and [REDACTED], also in the Little Blue valley (Brown and Ziegler 1985; Schmits 1989b); and the Doherty site [REDACTED], a campsite on a terrace in the upper Marais des Cygnes basin in Miami County, Kansas (Blakeslee and Rohn 1986; Deel 1992). Sites of the Nebo Hill phase have also been recorded at other sites in Stranger Creek basin, as well as in adjacent drainages to the east (Logan 1981, 1985, 1986, 1998a).

The Nebo Hill complex is characterized by a variety of chipped-stone and groundstone tools and the earliest known pottery in the region (Reid 1984). The most distinctive artifacts of the lithic assemblage are finely retouched, lanceolate bifaces that served as dart points and cutting tools (Shippee 1948, 1964), bifacial hoes, bifacial gouges, three-quarter grooved axes, rectangular celts, rectangular and ovate manos, and fiber-tempered pottery (Reid 1983:14-17). Side-notched and corner-notched dart points also occur as a minor element of the assemblage. The Nebo Hill folk practiced a seasonally-determined settlement pattern with late summer through fall occupation of blufftops by aggregates of bands that utilized the resources of the nearby upland forest and prairie communities, as well as the floodplain and aquatic zones. Primary dependence was on deer and black walnuts. During winter months the groups apparently dispersed into small, lowland camps (Reid 1984).

Walnut: The Walnut phase was defined primarily on the basis of data from one of several stratified components at the Synder site in the El Dorado Lake area, Butler County, Kansas (Grosser 1973). Originally interpreted as the expression of a Late Archaic population in the Flint Hills province of eastern Kansas (Grosser 1973, 1977), it has recently been attributed to an Early Woodland occupation of the region (Johnson 1992; see next section). The Walnut phase component at Synder was buried 40-80cm below a terrace fill along the Walnut River. Data used to define the Walnut phase were obtained from excavations at the site by the University of Kansas, Museum of Anthropology in 1968-1971. The Walnut phase dates ca. 3200-2000 BP. Its lithic assemblage is characterized by projectile points, small ovate bifaces, heavy duty bifaces, scrapers, and retouched and utilized flakes. The most frequent, and distinctive, projectile points are small, triangular, corner-notched points, called Walnut Corner-Notched, that were suggested to have been the earliest evidence of use of the bow and arrow (Grosser 1977:47-48). However, it has also been suggested that the width

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of the hafting element, measured between the notches, of these points is more indicative of the diameter of a dart shaft than that of an arrow shaft (Logan 1996:52). The absence of ceramics from the Walnut phase component at this and other Fli Hills sites supports an inference of Late Archaic adaptation. Johnson (1992) suggests, however, that this may reflect limited use of pottery during this time and its consequent scarcity or relatively low probability of finding it in the archaeological record.

Early Woodland

Bowlin: The Bowlin phase was proposed by Schmits and Bailey (1989: 240-241) for an Early Woodland period manifestation in the Little Blue River Valley, Jackson County, Missouri. They suggest that the phase dates ca. 2200-2550 BP. It is based on information from five sites, Traff (██████████ Wright 1980), Bowlin Bridge (██████████ Peterson 1982), ██████████ and ██████████ (Ziegler 1985a, 1985b), and McPherson (██████████ Donham 1982). The latter site is located on the Blue River, immediately west of the Little Blue River Valley. In addition to these sites, others now thought to represent an Early Woodland occupation of the Kansas City locality include ██████████, along Cedar Creek, a tributary of the lower Kansas River Valley, and ██████████ (Logan and Hedden 1990; Johnson 1992).

Early Woodland artifacts include contracting-stemmed and corner-notched projectile points. Sand-tempered, cordmarked, sometimes textured, pottery comparable to the Liverpool series of the Black Sand culture in the Lower Illinois River Valley appears in some site assemblages. The lack of pottery at some sites may reflect poor preservation of ceramics, such as has been suggested for the fiber-tempered pottery of the Nebo Hill phase (Reid 1984), or that the Early Woodland populations of the region were still relatively mobile and made relatively little use of ceramics.

None of the sites attributed to the Early Woodland period has yielded evidence of a sedentary lifeway. Storage pits are unknown and sites such as Traff and ██████████, which had more evidence of intensive settlement than the others, had only hearth features. Two such features at the latter site also yielded several clay objects and balls that may have had something to do with food cooking (Ziegler 1985b:177, 179). All of the sites excavated thus far are located in lowland settings. Schmits and Bailey (1989:241) suggest that this "appears to represent a shift in settlement patterns back towards emphasis on lowland environments seen during the Middle Archaic period". However, there is no reason to believe the uplands were not the scene of periodic occupation. This can be inferred from the remains of hardwood resources of the slopes and uplands, including black walnuts and hickory nuts, at some of the lowland sites. Traff yielded bison remains that also point to upland prairie exploitation (Wright 1980).

Johnson (1992) has suggested that the presence of an Early Woodland culture in the Kansas City locality, and elsewhere in eastern Kansas if the Walnut phase is additional evidence of an Early Woodland adaptation, is due to continued contact, through trade or diffusion, with Woodland populations to the east, particularly those of the Lower Illinois Valley.

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Middle Woodland

The Middle Woodland period in the lower Kansas River basin is represented by the Kansas City Hopewell complex (ca. 2000-1350 BP; Wedel 1943, 1959; Johnson 1976a, 1976b, 1979, 1981; Logan 2003b). The Kansas City Hopewell differed in several dramatic respects from their Late Archaic and Early Woodland predecessors. Proficient exploitation of woodland-riverine resources is reflected by village settlements that appear to have been occupied on a permanent basis. These villages (e.g., the Renner [23PL1] and Young [23PL4] sites) are generally situated near the mouths of Missouri River tributaries. Smaller, short-term camps, probably ancillary to the village, are located in its vicinity (Johnson 1976b). Other major sites of this complex are Aker [redacted], a village site on the floodplain east of Leavenworth; Kelley [redacted], Katz 1969), a small camp on Squaw Creek in Doniphan County, Kansas; Trowbridge ([redacted], Bell 1976), a major village in the interfluvial region near the confluence of the Kansas and Missouri rivers; and Perry [redacted], a village site in the Kansas River valley south of Perry, Kansas.

Most relevant to any Middle Woodland occupation of the Evans site are the Quarry Creek [redacted] and McPherson ([redacted]) sites, major Kansas City Hopewell occupations on the Fort Leavenworth reservation east of Stranger Creek watershed (Logan 1993; Wagner et al. 1989). A few other Kansas City Hopewell sites, represented by diagnostic surface finds, have been recorded in Stranger Creek basin. One of these, Jacka [redacted], has yielded numerous chipped stone tools and pottery sherds of this culture. It is located in Stranger Creek valley just [redacted] from the Evans site (Logan 2003b).

Artifacts diagnostic of Kansas City Hopewell include large, elongate ceramic jars with subconical bases. This ware changed through time in parallel (though with a time lag) with nearly identical pottery of the Havana Hopewell and the Weaver phase of the Lower Illinois Valley. The vessels are tempered with sand, grit, sherd, or a combination of these materials (Katz 1974). Exterior surfaces are plain, and rims and shoulders are decorated with a variety of designs, including cross-hatched incisions, rocker-stamped marks, hemiconoid punctates, or lip notches (Wedel 1943, Chapman 1980). Analysis of the temporal variation of these designs has resulted in their chronological seriation (Johnson and Johnson 1975). Lithic artifacts include corner-notched and contracting-stemmed dart points, blocky end scrapers, drills, gouges, chipped-stone and groundstone celts and axes, and utilized bladelets. Changes in projectile point technology and style also follow those of the Hopewell of the Lower Illinois Valley (Montet-White 1968; Bell 1976). Broad bladed Snyders bifaces are replaced in frequency by relatively large Norton, Manker, and Steuben Corner-Notched points. These points were gradually supplanted by medium-sized Manker, Steuben, and Ansell points and eventually complemented with Scallorn arrow points after 1500 BP (Montet-White 1968; Bell 1976:31-35; Johnson 1979:90, 1992:134).

Faunal remains, such as turkey bones and deer metapodials and antlers, were also modified for use as awls, punches, beamers, and flaking tools. While a variety of wild game contributed to Kansas City Hopewell subsistence, deer, raccoon and turkey appear to have been the staples. Wild plant foods, including oily and starchy plants, were intensively exploited, a pattern that may have led to the domestication of indigenous plants among Woodland cultures of the Eastern Woodlands (Smith 1992). Limited evidence of maize at some sites may also reflect formative agriculture (Adair 1996).

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Sedentary occupation of village sites is suggested by the presence of trash-filled storage pits and thick midden deposits. The Quarry Creek site is one example of such an occupation (Logan 1993). Stone-lined, earth-covered burial mounds located on blufftops near some of the larger settlements are another salient feature of this complex (Wedel 1943; Shippee 1967; Larsen and O'Brien 1973; Tjaden 1974).

Late (Plains) Woodland

This period is characterized by an adaptation that differs from that of the Middle Woodland period with respect to settlement-subsistence patterns and some aspects of lithic and ceramic technology. Smaller, more dispersed and less sedentary groups occupied smaller settlements. The agricultural component of the subsistence pattern was more fully developed, particularly with respect to tropical cultigens. Pottery is cordmarked and exhibits less decorative treatment, though vessels retain the elongate, conoidal shape of Middle Woodland ceramics. Projectile points include both corner-notched dart points and corner-notched (Scallorn) arrow points. Though more than a dozen Late (Plains) Woodland complexes have been identified in Kansas, Nebraska and Missouri (Johnson 2001; Adair 1996), the one most relevant to any site in Stranger Creek basin is the Grasshopper Falls phase (Logan 1985).

Grasshopper Falls was defined on the basis of three excavated sites in the Perry Lake portion of the Delaware Valley (Reynolds 1979, 1981). Other sites there and in adjacent drainages have expanded the data base (Baugh 1991; Logan and Fosha 1991; Reynolds 1987; Williams 1986). The core area now includes the Dissected Till Plains of northeastern Kansas. Though poorly dated, the phase appears to range ca. 1500-1000 BP. The subsistence pattern reflects a hunting and gathering economy with some evidence of farming of maize, sunflowers, and marshelder (Adair 1991). Houses were oval shaped structures of pole framework with an internal hearth, though extra-mural hearths situated between paired houses are more common. Pits features, often containing cultural debris, are present but they are neither as large nor bell-shaped as those of later farming cultures. Pottery vessels are densely grit-tempered, medium to large wide-mouthed jars with conical bases, exterior cordmarking, rare decoration generally limited to a single line of tool impressions on the rim. Other artifacts include projectile points as noted for Plains Woodland cultures in general, scrapers, drills, axes, gouges, celts, mullers, grinding stones, sandstone abraders, and hammerstones.

The Grasshopper Falls phase is represented by pottery and Scallorn points at Zacharias ██████████ in Salt Creek valley east of Stranger Creek. One radiocarbon date of A.D. 775-962 (one sigma calibrated age range) from charcoal supports a Plains Woodland occupation. However, the direct association of Woodland ceramic ware with Steed-Kisker and Pomona wares at the site suggests this occupation may have occurred during a time of transition from a Woodland to a Plains Village (Late Prehistoric) lifeway (Logan 1990b; Logan and Ritterbush 1994:6).

Late Prehistoric

Cultures of this period (ca. 1100-450 BP) are distinguished from those of the Woodland period not only by distinctive lithic and ceramic assemblages but by evidence of an increasing reliance on domestic plant foods, including corn, beans, squash, and sunflowers. Although the degree of reliance on cultigens has not been satisfactorily quantified, it is believed to have been significant (Wedel 1959:627; Adair 1988). The practice of small-scale horticulture combined with continued dependence on hunting and gathering led to a more sedentary lifestyle than that of Woodland groups.

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Archaeological complexes of this period that figured in the culture history of Stranger Creek basin and that are known to be represented at sites therein (Logan 1981, 1983, 1985, 2001, 2002, 2003a, 2003b) are the Steed-Kisker and Nebraska phases and the Pomona variant. Ceramic wares of both Pomona and Steed-Kisker were found at the Keen site [REDACTED] in the Perry Lake area (Witty 1983) [REDACTED] and at Zacharias in the Salt Creek drainage [REDACTED] (Logan 1988b, 1990a). Scattered finds of Nebraska phase wares have also been documented at Late Prehistoric sites in northeastern Kansas (Logan 1985, 1988b).

Steed-Kisker Phase: The Steed-Kisker phase, first recognized in the Platte River valley in northwestern Missouri (Wedel 1943), is known from several settlement and burial sites in the Kansas City locality (Calabrese 1969; Shippee 1972; Chapman 1980:156-160; O'Brien 1978a, 1978b; McHugh et al. 1982; Logan 1985, 1988b, 1990b). O'Brien (1993:47) dates the phase ca. A.D. 1000-1250. Logan and Ritterbush (1994:2) place it ca. A.D. 950-1400 (cf. Logan 1998a, 2002; Logan and Hill 2000). Certain ceramic traits compare to those of Middle Mississippian cultures of eastern Missouri and western Illinois. Some consider the phase to be the result of a migration of peoples from those areas (Chapman 1980:156; O'Brien 1993) and others consider the Mississippian traits to be little more than a veneer over a typical Central Plains Tradition manifestation that developed locally (Henning 1967).

Steed-Kisker settlements consist of remains of one or two shallow, subrectangular pit houses located on terraces along tributary streams of the Missouri, Platte, and Little Platte rivers. At least one Middle Mississippian-like wall-trench structure has also been excavated. That Steed-Kisker populations were largely sedentary is indicated by trash-filled storage pits and the presence of extensive burial grounds near some settlements. Hunting, gathering, and agriculture are reflected in the lithic tools, faunal, and floral remains.

Two sites, Cloverdale and DB, indicate upland occupation was part of the settlement pattern. Cloverdale [REDACTED] is in Buchanan County, Missouri [REDACTED]. The site includes a large settlement on a terrace along Cloverdale Creek, a tributary of the Missouri River, and a mortuary site, [REDACTED], on a nearby ridge. The upland portion of the site is on another ridge [REDACTED] above the stream. That component consists of a single lodge that was excavated by R. B. Aker, an avocational archaeologist of Parkville, Missouri (Feagins 1993). The structure was rectangular in outline, 21x17 ft in size, with a central fireplace and a pit feature near the north wall (Chapman 1980: 159; Shippee 1972:14-15; Feagins 1993:17). The nearby lowland settlement includes a mixture of cultural material indicative of both the Nebraska and Steed-Kisker phases and is believed to have been associated with the upland lodge. Recent research by Greatorex (1998) suggests these wares may have been produced by a single population. Chapman (1980:159) reports that the ceramic assemblage from the upland component, called Cloverdale House 1, consisted only of Platte Valley Plain and Steed-Kisker Incised sherds, both diagnostic of the Steed-Kisker phase.

Steed-Kisker ceramics include shell-tempered bowls and jars with plain surfaces, a variety of incised lines or scroll designs, and appendages such as lugs or loop handles. Also characteristic of the phase are clay pipes, animal and human effigies, small, triangular, side-and basal-notched arrowpoints, small end scrapers, alternately beveled knives, groundstone celts and axes, sandstone shaft abraders, groundstone pipes, and worked hematite. Burials include extended, flexed, and bundle skeletal remains and associated grave goods, such as bowls and arrowpoints.

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Nebraska Phase: The Nebraska phase was the first complex of the Central Plains tradition (CpT) recognized by archaeologists (Brown 1966, 1967; Blakeslee and Caldwell 1979; Blakeslee 1978, 1990; Billeck 1993; Krause 1969, 1989). The geographic range of the Nebraska phase extends along the Missouri River trench primarily in Nebraska, southward from Thurston County, but with an important locality along Keg and Pony Creeks near Glenwood, Mills County, Iowa (Anderson 1961; Brown 1967; Hotopp 1978a, 1978b; Blakeslee and Caldwell 1979; Billeck 1993). The southernmost extent of the phase is in Doniphan County, Kansas and Buchanan County, Missouri (Wood 1969; Feagins 1988). However, sites farther south such as [REDACTED] (Logan 2003:20-21) and [REDACTED] (Logan and Hedden 1990) have been attributed to the Nebraska phase. Radiocarbon dates for the Nebraska phase range from about A.D. 1000 to 1450 (Blakeslee 1990:29) in Nebraska and A.D. 1000 to 1250 in the Glenwood locality (Billeck 1993).

One of the hallmarks of the Nebraska phase is the rectangular or sub-rectangular lodge constructed of post supports and pole framework centered on a pit hearth and covered with earth or daub. Pits extending below the floor of these structures were used to store foodstuffs and other goods. Though some sites appear to have several such lodges, it is as yet debated whether these were contemporaneously occupied habitations of extensive villages (Gradwohl 1969) or serially occupied farmsteads (Blakeslee 1990).

The subsistence pattern is like that of the Steed-Kisker phase, characterized by hunting and gathering of wild animals of the prairie-woodland-riverine habitats, gathering of wild plant resources, and a significant reliance on the cultivation of domesticated plants (Adair 1988). Blakeslee (1990) suggests that Nebraska people practiced slash-and-burn gardening. This depleted soil, requiring relatively frequent moves along tributaries and resulting in a serial lodge occupation settlement pattern.

Ceramics include both shell-tempered and grit-tempered bowls and jars with lug and strap handles and rim-incised designs. Distinctive wares include McVey, Beckman and Swaboda pottery (Gunnerson 1952; Ives 1955; Anderson and Anderson 1960). Blakeslee and Caldwell (1979) and Billeck (1993) have established seriations of Nebraska phase ceramics. Both are major revisions of Nebraska phase spatial, temporal, and developmental parameters. Lithic artifacts are similar to those of the Steed-Kisker phase and other CpT complexes.

Considerable research has addressed the extent of Mississippian influence on the development of the Nebraska phase. Archaeologists have noted the diffusion or introduction of certain traits from Mississippian cultures in Nebraska phase ceramics (Strong 1935; Ives 1955; Wedel 1959:129-130; Anderson 1961; Brown 1967). Henning (1967) suggests such influence was indirect and channeled through the Steed-Kisker phase, which had established a pattern cultural interchange. McNerney (1987) reviews the effigy complex and some exotic ceramic vessels from Nebraska sites. He sees a connection between the Nebraska phase and populations of the southern section of the central Mississippi Valley subarea, Caddoan area, and Spiro-Southeastern Ceremonial complex.

Pomona Variant: The Pomona variant was first defined as a focus (Witty 1967) and more recently redefined as a variant with four phases (Brown 1985). The taxonomic integrity of these phases has been questioned (Logan and Hedden 1993:25-26; Logan and Beck 1996:64). The core area of the Pomona variant, as far as it is currently known, was limited to eastern Kansas, although it has been suggested that western Missouri served as a resource area at certain times.

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Ceramics, one of the most salient traits of Pomona material culture, include globular bowls and jars with high, straight or flaring rims. They are generally undecorated, though sometimes bear oblique incisions across the lip and/or incised or trailed lines around the rim. Surfaces may be plain or cordmarked and temper varies, though more frequently consisting of crushed sherd (grog), sand, or crushed shell. This last tempering agent was more frequently employed in the northeastern Kansas portion of the Pomona culture area (Brown 1985). The ceramic assemblage from the DB site includes at least one relatively thin, cordmarked sherd with sand temper. This sherd is comparable to Pomona ware, such as that from the nearby Zacharias site (Logan 1990b). The Caenen site, [REDACTED] has yielded several sherds of Pomona ware and for that reason has been assigned to the variant (Logan 2003a).

Pomona lithics are virtually indistinguishable from those of other Late Prehistoric cultures in the Central Plains. Bone tools are rarely preserved, possibly due to "climatic factors and the basically acidic soils of eastern Kansas" (Reynolds 1987:30). The most striking difference between Pomona and other regional, contemporary cultures is the absence of rectangular lodges (Witty 1978, 1981; Blakeslee and Rohn 1986). When definable (which is too rarely), Pomona houses appear to have been oval structures, usually about 25x15ft. Post mold patterns are irregular, and the frames were apparently covered with thatch and clay. These structures generally lack interior hearths (Reynolds 1987:32).

Pomona apparently developed directly from indigenous Late (Plains) Woodland groups (Brown 1985:429), perhaps the Greenwood (O'Brien 1984:64) and/or Grasshopper Falls phases (Reynolds 1987:24, 26; Johnson 1991). Witty (1981) suggests Pomona may represent survival of Woodland populations who added farming to a hunting-and-gathering economy. Blakeslee and Rohn (1986:1292) do not view Pomona "as a Plains Woodland survival into the Middle Ceramic period, at least not to a greater extent than is true for the Central Plains tradition." Johnson (1991) suggests Pomona is ancestral to the historic Kansa (but see critiques by Henning 1993; Logan and Hedden 1993; Vehik 1993).

Brown (1985) has suggested that the Pomona settlement pattern was a continuation of the Plains Woodland and Late Archaic patterns in the same region. This was characterized by a shift between upland, warm weather settlements and lowland, cold weather sites. Our knowledge of the former sites has been hampered by the bias toward investigation of sites on terraces. Seasonal abandonment of sites to pursue game in the mixed grass prairie to the west of the Pomona domain and in the Ozark Highland to the east (i.e., resource areas) has also been proposed as part of the settlement-subsistence pattern. Witty (1978) suggested that the Pomona variant is a late Plains Woodland complex that was contemporaneous with CPt groups in eastern Kansas.

Protohistoric

This period is poorly represented in most of northeastern Kansas and what little is known comes from a few sites along the Missouri River in Doniphan County affiliated with the late Oneota tradition that is widespread throughout the Midwest. As is the case for earlier Hopewell and Mississippian (or "Mississippian-like") manifestation, the Oneota presence is geographically peripheral. Investigations by Wedel (1959) at the Doniphan sits in Doniphan County support the interpretation that the latter was occupied during the 18th century, and was indeed part of the Kansa village from which Etienne Veniard de Bourgmont westward journey of diplomacy to woo the "Padouca" (Plains Apache) from the Spanish. His excavations at the nearby Fanning site provided tenuous evidence of a late 17th century presence in the region, soon after the Kansa entered the area following their migration from the Ohio River country (Wedel 1959; Unrau 1971).

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An earlier occupation of Oneota groups in the area is evident at the Leary site, in extreme southeastern Nebraska (Hill and Wedel 1936; Ritterbush 2002). As at Doniphan, house remains there indicate a Central Plains tradition (Nebraska phase) occupation as well and at Leary it is possible the components reflect contemporaneity and, possibly, some interaction during the 13th and 14th centuries. At that time, a group of Oneota migrated westward from a settlement like Leary, if not Leary itself, to the lower Republican River basin in north central Kansas and south central Nebraska. There, possibly displacing Central Plains tradition groups, they occupied a number of camps, the most extensive of which are on upland ridges along White Rock Creek in Jewell County, Kansas. Defined archaeologically as the White Rock phase, these Oneota practiced farming but differed from more eastern Oneota in focusing intensively on bison-hunting (Logan 1995, 1998b, 1998c; Ritterbush and Logan 2000). Both the proximity of late Oneota (i.e., Kansa) groups to Stranger Creek and the putative origin of the White Rock phase migrants along the lower Missouri River suggest there may have been some transient Oneota activity in the former watershed.

Diagnostic artifacts of Oneota cultures include shell-tempered pottery decorated with distinctive motifs composed of trailed lines and punctates. Vessels were commonly decorated with tool impressions on the lip or just below it on the interior surface and often include strap or loop handles that sometimes exhibit decorations as well. Lithic tools, comparable to those of the Late Prehistoric cultures described above, are perhaps most distinctive with regard to arrow points, which more frequently are unnotched and reflect expedient production with little retouching of flake blanks. Groundstone artifacts include not only manos and metates of metamorphic rock, but mauls (used for crushing bones for marrow extraction and grease production). Also included are disk pipes made of pipestone (catlinite and local, glacially-derived pipestone) and incised, tabular pieces of pipestone. The former are considered to be a hallmark of Developmental Oneota, dating after A.D. 1450 (Henning 1998).

House form is unknown, despite the fact that settlements such as Leary have dozens of storage pits that otherwise point to prolonged, permanent occupation. While Hill and Wedel (1936) suggest that a sub-rectangular lodge at Leary belongs to the Oneota component, others have suggested it is more likely a structure occupied by a family of the Central Plains tradition (Ritterbush 2002). Remains of what has been interpreted as two houses at the White Rock site (Rusco 1960) are limited to a rather amorphous scatter of postmolds around a hearth and pit features (cf. Logan 1998b). Oneota subsistence is characterized by a broad spectrum combination of hunting and gardening, based on faunal and floral remains from Leary (Hill and Wedel 1936) to the aforementioned bison-focused hunting pattern combined with maize farming at White Rock phase sites (Logan 1998b, 1998c).

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PROPERTY TYPES

A variety of functional site types from several time periods may be subsumed under this National Register of Historic Places Multiple Property listing. These include house sites, campsites, and such special-activity sites as lithic quarries and workshops, and burial sites. Because of the broad temporal dimension of this listing, any given site may have more than one component. That is, it may include evidence of activity during more than one specific time period and, therefore, evidence of more than one of the functional types. The following discussion is based on information regarding the time periods and site types presented in Section E, as well as on information derived from known sites in Stranger Creek basin. Site significance may be determined from specific research problems for each of the time periods represented at these property types that are addressed in the supplement to the *Kansas Prehistoric Archaeological Preservation Plan* (Brown and Simmons 1987) entitled *The Archaeology of Kansas: A Research Guide* (Logan 1996). That supplement provides a series of hypotheses derived from current research problems under these domains: taxonomy, chronology, geography, settlement patterns, subsistence economy, cultural relations, and technology.

House Sites

This property type includes sites with house remains, including daub scatters and postmolds that outline habitations and their internal features (hearth, storage pits, etc.). Paleoindian or Archaic sites that prove to have house remains should be considered significant. Thus far, no such site has yet been found in northeastern Kansas, let alone in Stranger Creek basin. From what we know of the settlement patterns of these periods elsewhere in the central Plains, houses are not expected. From the late Pleistocene through the mid-Holocene, the adaptations of hunter-gatherers were based on mobility, or at best, seasonal occupation of a series of camps that were occupied during the year as resources in different habitats became available. Excavations at the Nebo Hill site in northwestern Missouri revealed some scattered postmolds (perhaps from ramadas, drying racks, etc.) and a few shallow pit features. However, these do not appear to indicate more than a seasonal stay, interpreted as evidence of repeated autumn occupations by aggregations of Late Archaic bands (Reid 1983, 1984). Consequently, a pre-ceramic age site with house remains would be significant because it might alter our understanding of the relative sedentism of hunter-gatherers.

House sites are characteristic of late Holocene, ceramic-age cultures. These include archaeological complexes of the Middle Woodland (Kansas City Hopewell), Late Woodland, Late Prehistoric, and Protohistoric periods. While Kansas City Hopewell sites have been documented along tributaries of the Missouri River east of Stranger Creek and at least eight sites of that culture have been recorded in Stranger Creek basin (Logan 1985, 2003b), none has yielded traces of houses. Still, the apparent prolonged occupation of many of these sites is indicated by their well-developed trash middens, wide variety of stone and bone tools, and varied faunal and floral remains that attest to year-round procurement of resources. Thus, future investigations may yield traces of house structures. Sites that reveal them will be significant because they will give new insight to settlement patterns. It will not be necessary for a Kansas City Hopewell site to contain house remains in order to be considered significant. Those that lack them may still yield, or promise to yield, important evidence of other aspects of Hopewell adaptations (see Camp Sites below).

Late Woodland sites may have house remains. Outlines of oval structures of wattle-and-daub construction have been found at Grasshopper Falls phase sites along tributaries of the lower Kansas River (Baugh 1991; Logan and Fosha 1991; Reynolds 1979). At least 43 components in Stranger Creek basin are assigned to this phase (Logan 1981, 1983, 1985:222). These and others yet to be recorded may have similar remains. Though the Grasshopper Falls phase house form appears to be well known, it is based on less than a dozen structures and this small sample is characterized by

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considerable variation in size. Moreover, we know very little about Late Woodland house sites east of the Delaware River. Thus, the National Register of Historic Places should include house sites of this age that are in Stranger Creek.

House remains are more common at Late Prehistoric sites than those of earlier and later periods and at least 40 components of that period have been recorded in Stranger Creek basin (Logan 1985:222; Logan 2001, 2003a). Some of these have daub scatters and at least one, Scott (14LV1082), demonstrates that significant information about architecture, internal activity areas, assemblage variability, and cultural relations can be recovered. The Scott site includes a Steed-Kisker component represented by the most complete house of this culture in Kansas (Logan 2001, 2002, 2003a). Square with rounded corners, the house covered an area 7.5x7.5m, and had an extended entryway and two storage pits. The structure had been supported by at least four internal support beams centered on a hearth. Several remnants of the burned supports were recovered and one returned a radiocarbon date of ca. AD 1275-1428, two sigma calibrated range; Logan 2002). Excavation yielded extensive ceramic and lithic assemblages and abundant plant remains. Pottery in the house, dominated by the Platte Valley ware indicative of the Steed-Kisker phase, includes examples of Beckman and McVey wares diagnostic of the Nebraska phase. It demonstrates relations between these two cultures in Stranger Creek valley and reflects one of the most salient characteristics of the watershed- its role as a cultural frontier. The nearby Caenen site [REDACTED] also yielded daub, and pottery diagnostic of the Pomona variant, again exemplifying the significant role of Stranger Creek as a locality shared by Late Prehistoric groups of different archaeological affiliations. The National Register of Historic Places should include Late Prehistoric sites such as Scott that provide significant information about farmsteads and agricultural adaptations in a frontier setting.

Camp Sites

Camps are the most common property type in Stranger Creek. As noted above, sites of this type are characteristic of the Paleoindian and Archaic periods, but examples are known from all other periods. Though a more sedentary settlement pattern characterized subsequent cultures, ceramic-age peoples continued to inhabit short-term settlements for some purposes. Perhaps the most fitting example, given its multicomponent nature, relevancy to several archaeological cultures of Stranger Creek, and geographic proximity, is the DB site (see Section E). This upland site yielded evidence of short-term encampments of every major period, reflecting continuity in some subsistence practices (late summer-autumn gathering of nuts). While the Late Prehistoric occupation at DB included construction of wattle-and-daub structures, their lack of internal features (hearths and pits) and postmolds suggests that occupation as well was seasonal (Logan 1998a; Logan and Hill 2000).

Camp sites can yield significant information about variations through time and space in settlement-subsistence patterns, spatial relations of various activity areas (e.g., flintknapping, hide scraping and preparation, game and other food processing, cooking, trash disposal, etc.), and preferences for and seasonal procurement of game and wild or domestic plant food resources. The National Register of Historic Places should include sites in the watershed of this type and any major period that may provide such information, that is, those that contain artifacts, features, and activity areas in good context.

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Kill/Butchery Sites

There are no known sites in Stranger Creek basin that functioned as kill/butchery locales. However, there is reason to expect them. Paleoindian sites are generally known from finds of projectile points used to dispatch game and often these points occur in association with the skeletal remains of those animals. As Paleoindian projectile points have been found in areas adjacent to Stranger Creek basin, it is probable that examples could be found in the drainage. It is more likely that such artifacts will be found in areas subject to net erosion, primarily uplands. Sites of later periods that are characterized by the predominance of projectile points or other chipped stone tools used to kill or butcher game, especially those associated with animal remains, and the relative paucity of other kinds of tools may also be interpreted as sites of this type. Because they provide significant information about aspects of past cultures that are not represented at living sites and therefore give a fuller picture of prehistoric adaptations, these sites should be considered eligible for the National Register of Historic Places.

Lithic Quarries and Workshops

Utilized sources of lithic raw materials, including chert and glacially-derived metamorphic stone, in Stranger Creek can provide important information about one of the most critical activities of stone-age cultures. As noted in Section E, at least two kinds of chert, Plattsmouth and Toronto, outcrop in the basin. Both were extensively used by prehistoric groups for the production of a wide variety of chipped stone tools, including projectile point/knives, drills, perforators, graters, scrapers, adzes, axes, etc. Stranger Creek also drains a portion of the Dissected Till Plains region of Kansas and, thus, includes deposits of quartzites, granites, diorites, and other metamorphic rock that was transported from northern sources by glacial ice. These were widely used for groundstone implements, including manos, metates, axes, celts, mauls, etc. Sites that reveal where and how prehistoric peoples obtained these raw materials can inform us about the "ethnogeology" of stone-age cultures (e.g., about chert preferences and understanding of where raw materials could be found and quarried) and about how such sites functioned with other types of sites within broader settlement patterns.

One site along Stranger Creek, Evans [REDACTED] contained a feature that documents the reduction of pieces of Toronto chert (Logan 2003a). One of the buried Archaic components at the site includes two piles of about 300 flakes and numerous small chips that attest to the production of chipped stone tools in a floodplain setting. In the immediate vicinity of the Evans site, the stone outcrops are Tonganoxie sandstone. While these were a ready source a such tools as shaft abraders and metates, examples of which were recovered at the adjacent Scott site, they are chert-free. The nearest outcrops of Toronto limestone are in the uplands [REDACTED] of Evans and others are [REDACTED] distant along Nine Mile Creek (McCauley 1998). It is apparent, then, that the Evans site occupants made trips to sources in the uplands nearby or to outcrops along tributary streams. It had been suggested that tributary valleys, such as Nine Mile Creek, had been preferred for settlement because they exposed limestone members that included cherts and that the valley of the principal stream was less favored for that reason (and, perhaps, because it was more flood-prone) (Logan 1988a). The recent discovery of the chert piles at Evans now suggests that, at least during the Archaic period, flintknappers were willing to carry large pieces of Toronto chert several miles to a lowland camp on Stranger Creek. This site, then, exemplifies how significant information can be obtained from lithic workshop sites.

At least one primary source of Toronto chert has been found along Nine Mile Creek. It is on a bluff slope a short distance [REDACTED] of a concentration of prehistoric sites, [REDACTED] (Logan 1983, 1985). These sites include components of the Archaic, Woodland, and Late Prehistoric periods and they

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have yielded high densities of Toronto chert, suggesting that raw material was likely procured from the bluff slope source over a long period of time. Source areas such as this one may prove to be significant for understanding lithic procurement strategies and deserve placement on the National Register of Historic Places.

Burial Sites

Sites where the dead were interred are primarily limited to those of the ceramic periods in northeastern Kansas. While three burial sites in Kansas have been assigned to the Archaic period (Theis and Witty 1992; Hoard et al. 2002), many more of Woodland and Late Prehistoric age are known. Those in the vicinity of Stranger Creek include several earth mounds of the Woodland period (probably of Kansas City Hopewell affiliation), a crematorium of Late Woodland age, and cemeteries of the Steed-Kisker phase. As these cultures have been documented at habitation sites in Stranger Creek basin, it is reasonable to expect mortuary sites there as well.

The practice of interring the dead in mounds is a hallmark of the Woodland period throughout much of eastern North America. These mounds frequently contained flexed burials or cremated remains. Examples of such mounds that are earth covered and stone lined, some containing stone vaults, have been documented [REDACTED]

Among the latter are Taylor Mound in Doniphan County (O'Brien 1971) and a series of mounds in Atchison and Leavenworth counties that were more poorly documented by Remsburg (n.d, 1892, 1893, 1903). Included in the latter was a cluster of mounds on the Fort Leavenworth reservation that Remsburg (1905) inferred had been the subject of the earliest archaeological investigation in the state. That excavation was by the Rev. Isaac McCoy (Barnes 1936), who opened one of the mounds in 1830 during his survey of the Delaware Indian reservation. All of these mounds were likely mortuary sites of the Kansas City Hopewell, an attribution first made by Wedel (1943). A few mounds have been recorded on bluffs [REDACTED] but it is not clear whether these were made by people of the Kansas City Hopewell variant (no sites of that complex are known in the valley) or the subsequent Grasshopper Falls phase (Reynolds 1979).

That cremation was still practiced by Late Woodland peoples in northeastern Kansas is evident at the Richland site [REDACTED] There a feature consisting of an arc of burned limestone was uncovered, the fill of which yielded dozens of burned skeletal remains of at least two adult individuals (Logan 1990a). Associated Scallorn arrow points and radiocarbon-dated charcoal samples (ca. AD 556-658; the one-sigma, calibrated range of two averaged samples) support a Late Woodland age. Of interest about this feature is its presence at a lowland habitation site, rather than an upland mound. It is possible that the crematorium was the locus of a mortuary ritual, the first stage of which included cremation and a subsequent one may have entailed collection of burned bones and interment elsewhere in a mound. If that scenario is accurate, it suggests the maintenance by Late (Plains) Woodland people of the Middle Woodland mortuary practice.

Unconfirmed reports of burial mounds in Stranger Creek basin include mounds on land owned, in the early 20th century, by Maurice Feahly and August Nieman. [REDACTED]

[REDACTED] Excavated by the landowner, the stone mound yielded a portion of a human skeleton, including the skull (Ingalls 1916; Remsburg 1909). [REDACTED] while no excavations are described, surveys in its vicinity recovered a maul and stone ax (Remsburg 1912).

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Late Prehistoric burial practices are not as well known as those of the Woodland period and fewer mortuary sites are known. However, a few well-documented cemetery areas of the Steed-Kisker phase are known [REDACTED]

[REDACTED] interments there are of the extended, flexed and bundle types and contain such associated grave goods as small bowls and arrow points. [REDACTED]

[REDACTED] noted that evidence of maize consumption is apparent from skeletal pathologies and the high frequency of dental caries in the human remains [REDACTED]

Studies of human remains can inform us not only about past dietary patterns but migrations (e.g., through isotopic analyses), demographics (e.g., infant mortality rates), social organization (e.g., status differentiation), and ideology (e.g., via grave goods with iconic representations such as motifs of the Southeastern Ceremonial Complex). Given consultation of Native American groups and compliance with both the Native American Graves Protection and Repatriation Act (NAGPRA) and the Kansas Unmarked Burial Act, archaeologists can derive significant insight to past cultures from burial sites.

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SUMMARY OF IDENTIFICATION AND EVALUATION METHODS

This document is based on data accumulated from a number of archaeological investigations within the geographical area (Section G). These include a survey in 1968 by archaeologists from the University of Kansas that was restricted to [REDACTED] and resulted in the recording of [REDACTED] sites (Johnson et al 1972). Other more intermittent and spatially diffuse surveys were conducted by archaeologists from the Kansas State Historical Society (KSHS) in conjunction with secondary road and highway projects (e.g., Brogan 1981, 1982). These resulted in the recording of [REDACTED] sites. A reconnaissance of four flood-prone areas along Stranger Creek (at Linwood, Tonganoxie, Highway 92 crossing, and Easton) that was done by Fischer-Stein Associates, Inc. for the Corps of Engineers in 1980 resulted in the recording of two sites, one historic and one prehistoric (McNerney and White 1981). All these data were integrated with the much more extensive surveys and site testing of the Stranger Creek Archaeological Project (see Section E), which brought the total number of recorded sites to [REDACTED] (Logan 1981, 1983, 1985). More recently, archaeologists from the Kansas State Historical Society, University of Kansas Museum of Anthropology (KUMA), and Kansas State University (KSU) have recorded [REDACTED] more sites with information provided by a local collector, Scott DeMaranville, of Tonganoxie (Logan 2001, 2002, 2003a, 2003b).

It is apparent that the survey methods and sampling strategies applied during the above investigations varied. However, those of the largest project, SCAP, were opportunistic and purposeful. They entailed interviews of local collectors, reviews of artifact collections in private hands and at the KSHS and KUMA, reconnaissance of selected lowland and upland terrain, limited test excavations at five sites (Courtney-[REDACTED] Slawson-[REDACTED] Evans-[REDACTED] Caenen-[REDACTED] and intensive excavations at one site (Scott-[REDACTED]). [REDACTED]

The historic contexts of prehistoric properties outlined in Section E are temporal periods recognized for the central Great Plains: Paleoindian, Archaic, Woodland, Late Prehistoric, and Protohistoric. These contexts, or their equivalents (i.e., Woodland=Early Ceramic; Late Prehistoric=Middle Ceramic; Protohistoric=Late Ceramic), have been described for the Dissected Till Plains, the physiographic province that includes Stranger Creek basin, in the *Kansas Prehistoric Archaeological Preservation Plan* (Brown and Simmons 1987). Problem domains for the study of sites within these contexts are presented in a supplement to that document, *The Archaeology of Kansas: A Research Guide* (Logan 1996). These documents, as well as the publications and technical reports cited in Section E that pertain to Stranger Creek and adjacent watersheds, provide evidence that supports the significance or potential significance of prehistoric properties in the basin.

The property types are described according to functional categories that encompass much of the variability of sites for each of the temporal periods. These include house sites, camps, kill/butchery sites, lithic quarries and workshops, and burial sites.

The requirements for integrity for listing individual sites to be subsumed under this multiple property listing include those provided by examples described in Section F. In general, they include properties characterized by artifact assemblages, features, or deposits in relatively undisturbed contexts study of which can increase our understanding of cultural adaptations in northeastern Kansas during the late Pleistocene to late Holocene (ca. 12,000 to 300 years ago).

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